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ABSTRACT

Two annotated bibliographies address different aspects of instruction in English as a Second Language (ESL). The first bibliography lists 80 articles and books published primarily between 1975 and 1985 on error treatment in ESL instruction. Citations are listed alphabetically by author, but two indexes are included. The first index divides citations into those dealing with error treatment during pre-production stages, during production, and in post-production stages. The second index categorizes citations according to self-treatment by the learner, by the peer group, and by the teacher. Citations contain basic bibliographic information and most include a brief to moderate-length annotation. The second bibliography cites 38 journal articles published between 1976 and 1985 that deal with the teaching of vocabulary to second language learners. The second bibliography also includes articles specific to ESL. Some articles are in languages other than English. Citations contain basic bibliographic information and a brief annotation. (MSE)

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ESL/EFL METHODOLOGY: TOPICAL, ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Volume 2

Dan J. Tannacito, editor

December 1989

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ESL/EFL METHODOLOGY: TOPICAL, ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES, VOL. 2

Dan J. Tannacito, Editor
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

December 1989

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Recent Trends in Error Treatment: An Annotated Bibliography

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November 25, 1985

Abstract

This bibliography contains abstracts of articles and books published primarily between 1975 and 1985 dealing with error treatment in teaching English as a second language. Since error treatment rather than error analysis is the focus of the bibliography, any articles dealing with error analysis draw implications for classroom applications.

Appendix A creates three categories of articles: (a) those dealing with error treatment in the pre-production stages, (b) those dealing with error treatment during production, and (c) those dealing with error treatment in the post-production stages. Appendix B divides the articles according to: (a) self-treatment of error by the learner, (b) error treatment by the peer group, and (c) error treatment by the teacher.

(2)

Acton, W. (1984). Changing fossilized pronunciation. TESOL Quarterly, 18, 71-85. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1985, 19, Abstract No. 8502394)

Described is an approach for dealing with the pronunciation of advanced English as a second language (ESL) learner who may be relatively fluent but who remains quite inaccurate. His pronunciation is often thought of being "fossilized" and highly resistent to change. The specific group for which this approach was designed is somewhat unique: foreign professionals many of whom have been in English-speaking environments for years. Nonetheless, the general framework and the method involved are applicable in many contexts. For such fossilized learners, traditional pronunciation methods are often ineffective. A successful, somewhat unorthodox teaching program that draws on research from several disciplines is outlined.

(3)

Allwright, R. L., (1975). Problems in the study of the language teacher's treatment of learner error. In M. Burt & H. Dulay (Eds.), New Directions in Second Language Learning, Teaching and Bilingual Education (pp. 96-109). Washington, DC: TESOL.

The view of errors as crucial to language learners is commonly accepted. ESL researchers view errors as a developmental necessity. In looking at errors, one must (1) deal with the classroom context in which errors occur, as well as the errors themselves, and (2) deal with the social nature of this context in terms of a complexity of relationships between teacher and learner. The study involved can potentially contribute to research on teacher effectiveness in dealing with errors.

The author describes error-making as a potential crisis for both student and teacher. The teacher's response to an error will be a major factor in determining what the student actually learns. The teacher is often imprecise and inconsistent in dealing with errors in the class. Teachers need a way of predicting the interpretations their behavior will give rise to. The effectiveness of teacher treatment of error will depend on how it is perceived rather than on what "it" is. Teachers' behavior, in turn, will depend on how they perceive the students they are dealing with. This study is a preliminary work based on pilot data; there needs to be more work in research.

Altenberg, E.P. & Vago, R.M. (1983). Theoretical implications of an error analysis of second language phonology production. Language Learning, 33, 427-447. (From Language Teaching, 1985, 18, Abstract No. 85-166)

An error analysis approach is used to investigate the second language (English) phonology of two native speakers of Hungarian. The study provides evidence relevent to a number of issues in second language phonology. While evidence for both phonetic (sound) transfer and phonological (rule) transfer is found, there are limitations on what can transfer from the native language to the target language. The analysis also reveals the application of unmarked rules in the second language phonology production. These rules occur in neither the native nor the target language. The data are used to approach a substantive characterisation of the notion of degree of foreign accent. The error analysis approach is contrasted with the autonomous system analysis approach; each provides unique information and both must be used together to arrive at a more complete understanding of second language phonology.

(5)

Bailey, K. & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Classroom skills for ESL teachers. In M. Celce-Murcia & L. McIntosh (Eds.), Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (pp. 315-331). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Four significant areas of teacher-student interaction in second language classrooms are discussed. Those four areas are: (1) social climate, (2) variety in learning activities, (3) opportunity for student participation, and (4) need for feedback and correction. The article deals with how to implement certain teaching strategies and gives a framework for self-evaluation.

In an overview of the field, the authors question the need for feedback and for certain methods of correction. A history is given of the effectiveness of various feedback and correction strategies:

(1) Teacher correction: Errors needing correction are those which interfere with communication, those which involve a self-monitoring process in producing structures and vocabulary which has been studied previously, and those which involve questions. Correction strategies useful here are teacher's gestures, self diagnosis and correction.

(2) Self correction: The authors feel that self-correction is the most beneficial since it weans students away from the need for overt correction and toward increased monitoring.

(3) Peer correction: The authors feel that it is important

to vary the order of students in the classroom so that different peers respond to the same student in turn-taking in peer-group work.

In concluding, the authors feel that the order of beneficial correction is first, self-correction, second, peer-correction, third, teacher-correction. Further research into and study on interlanguage, student achievement, and teacher's reacting moves are needed.

(7)

Berwald, J. (1979). Correcting errors made by French-Canadian learners of English. Canadian Modern, 35, 181-185. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1981, 15, Abstract No. 8100289)

For several years the Canadian government has been sponsoring intensive six-week summer programs in French and English to its citizens in an effort to strengthen bilinguilism. Common error patterns made by students in such classes were noted; most seemed to result from native language interference. Most errors were noted in informal discussions in English between classes and in social situations. Common errors were systematically corrected with pattern drills, worksheets, and individual tapes. Improvement was noted in informal discussions and with formal testing. Suggestions are presented for correcting ten of the most frequently observed errors and the preparation of suggested drills and exercises.

Bogaards, P. (1982). Ideeen over onderwijs, methode en de behandeling van fouten in het vreemde-talenonderwijs (Ideas on teaching and methods of handling mistakes in foreign language instruction). Levende Talen, 371, 299-309. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1985, 19, Abstract No. 8500263)

Presented is an overview of the current literature available on the topics of lexical, phonological, and grammatical errors in foreign language instruction. A questionnaire with 91 questions was sent to German, English and French teachers at 62 different schools. Of the 259 questionnaires sent, 113 were returned. Four main types of teacher attitudes toward student errors are discernible, with implications for error treatment preference.

(9)

Brown, C. (1976). Error analysis. A hard look at method is madness. Utah Language Quarterly, 1 (3), 14-26. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2, 1984, Abstract No. 796)

The author maintains that all learners of English as a second language seem to make errors in the same areas, regardless of their native background. Error analysis uses contrastive analysis, where errors can be attributed to interference. Brown has some suggestions for teachers who want to use error analysis: (1) collect a sampling of the students' language; (2) identify the errors; (3) determine a hierarchy of errors; (4) select errors to be corrected; (5) adapt materials for the corrections; and (6) correct the errors consistently.

(10)

Bruton, A. & Samuda, V. (1980). Learner and teacher roles in the treatment of oral error in group work. RELC Journal, 11, 49-63. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1984, 18, Abstract No. 8400249)

Types of error correction performed by the teacher and the learner are studied. Research on error treatment is reviewed, noting the emphasis that has been placed on the teacher as sole corrector of form errors. The role of errors in terms of methodology used to teach the target language is discussed, and the role of the learner in error correction is explored. Errors corrected by the learner appear to be errors of communication and self-expression. Data were provided by videotape of ten hours of classes of adult learners (number unspecified). Four error types corrected by peers and five correction types are identified. Error types not corrected by the learner are studied, using G. Miller's model of six levels of linguistic processing ("Psychology, Language and Levels of Communication" in Human Communication: Theoretical Explorations, Silverstein, A. (ed.), N.Y.: J. Wiley, 1974). Hierarchies of errors are discussed and teacher/learner roles in each level described. Communication breakdown and its four types are discussed. It is concluded that "minor" product-centered errors can be treated by the learner, and "major" process-centered errors should be handled by the teacher.

(11)

Burt, M. (1975). Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 9, 53-63.

In recent years, there has been a growing research interest in the analysis of errors adults make while learning a second language. The underlying objective of most of these analyses has been to reveal the systematicity of adult errors in an effort to understand the process of adult second language learning.

This paper deals with errors from a different point of view, namely, from the listener's or reader's point of view. The question asked is, which types of errors cause the listener or reader to misunderstand the message intended by the EFL learner? Based on the judgments of native English speakers about the comprehensibility of hundreds of sentences containing errors of EFL learners all over the world, linguistic criteria for determining the communicative importance of learners' errors are suggested. Areas of English syntax that cause important communicative errors usually neglected in most EFL training materials are discussed. Selective correction is recommended, rather than "all-out" correction in dealing with students' errors as it is a more instructive and enjoyable technique in the classroom.

The paper concludes with the application of this particular error analysis approach to the EFL classroom.

(12)

Burt, M. K. & Kiparsky, C. (1972). The Gooficon. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

The Gooficon is called a "repair manual for English." The term "goof" is used to mean an error students make in learning a second language. The purpose of the book is to help ESL teachers whose students know some English, but still make mistakes. The stated purpose of the book should help teachers make decisions about how to use other ESL materials to suit the particular problems of the particular students. The chapters are arranged on the basis of groups of errors which fall together structurally. Burt and Kiparsky's aim is to help the teacher recognize and respond to regular (developmental) errors. This is not the approach of contrastive analysis, nor is it language-specific.

Global and local errors ("goofs" in the authors' terms) are defined. Hints are given on which "goofs" to correct, and a hierarchy of errors is given as a way of ordering errors according to their importance. Each chapter contains an analysis of a "goof" type, hints on how to correct the error, and drills and repetition exercises.

(13)

Cardelle, M. & Corno, L. (1981). Effects on second language learning of variations in written feedback on homework assignments. TESOL Quarterly, 15, 251-261.

This study assessed the effects on second language learning of variations in homework written feedback that either suppressed student errors or made them salient. Eighty students from two college Spanish courses were randomly assigned to treatment groups for a six-week period. Performance data were collected before and after treatment, as well as from homework during treatment. Analysis of variance blocking on pretest revealed significant achievement increases for treated students independent of course membership. Planned comparisons pooled across courses showed achievement was consistently superior under salient error conditions and in particular with constructively critical feedback. Results support the notion that the written performance of students learning a second language can benefit most by focusing on homework errors in a motivationally favorable manner. Relevance of the findings for instructional theory and second language teaching is discussed.

(14)

Cathcart, R. & Olson, J. (1976). Teachers' and students' preference for correction of classroom conversation errors. In J. Fanselow & R. Crymes (Eds.), On TESOL (pp. 41-53). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Recently much has been written concerning the influence of adult students' language learning strategies upon their classroom errors. There have also been made studies of teachers' actual methods, or lack of them, in correcting students' conversation errors.

The ultimate goal of the research on error correction in language learning is to find which correction methods do actually facilitate learning. Four parts of the study involved are: (1) discussion of questionnaires on error correction completed by students in two community colleges and a San Francisco university, (2) discussion of what error correction occured in the tapes of actual classroom interaction, (3) a review of error correction questionnaires filled out by the teachers and compared to the teachers on the tape, and (4) suggestions for further research and general comments.

In general, the students want to be corrected more often than the teachers think they should be. However, there is general agreement on the value of certain types of correction techniques.

Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. Language Learning, 27, 29-46. (From Language Teaching, 1981, 14, Abstract No. 81-96)

The reaction of the target-language speaker to the L2 learner's errors may play an important role in developing awareness of norms of correctness. Corrective feedback functions in different way to guide the learner towards preferred performance. Based on the corrective portions of classroom interaction in French immersion classes, a model for this kind of discourse has been developed. Different types and features of correcting acts combine into a structural model that can describe actual corrective interactions for a given error or set of errors.

Use of the model in description helps isolate ambiguities; it highlights special features of corrective interaction that are likely to be more effective in eliciting correct performance. The example of various types of "repetitions" or "response modelling" is taken to show which types appear to lead to more successful correction. The model may be of use to both teachers and students in learning to identify corrective techniques and to be sensitive to the function of various kinds of feedback.

(16)

Chaudron, C. (1977). Teachers' priorities in correcting learners' errors in French immersion classes. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 12, 21-44. (From Language Teaching, 1978, 11, Abstract No. 78-100)

Observation and analysis of classroom interaction is used in a pilot study of grade 8 and 9 French immersion programmes to evaluate the relative importance placed by teachers on the different oral behavior of students. The frequencies of teachers' corrections for different kinds of students' errors (in L2 skills, subject-matter knowledge, and classroom interaction) are seen to correspond in definite ways to the teachers' stated priorities. The learning of lesson content (in mathematics, science, history, geography and French) is not subordinated in L2 acquisition.

(17)

Chenoweth, N.A., Day, R.R., Chun, A., & Luppescu, S. (1983). Attitudes and preferences of ESL students to error correction. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 6, 79-87.

The article presents the findings of a survey of ESL students' attitudes toward and preferences for the correction of spoken errors by native speaker friends. The 418 subjects reported generally positive attitudes toward error correction and claimed to prefer even more correction than their friends did. They saw correcting errors as facilitating--even being necessary--for the improvement of their oral English.

(18)

Chun, A.E. & others. (1982). Errors, interaction, and correction: A study of native-nonnative conversations. TESOL Quarterly, 16, 537-547.

In an investigation of native speaker (NS)-nonnative speaker (NNS) conversations in social settings, we learn that only a small percentage (8.9%) of NNS errors were corrected by NSs. These corrections occurred in response to errors of fact, discourse, vocabulary, syntax and omission. Since discourse and vocabulary errors were corrected more frequently than errors in syntax and omission, we recommend that the treatment of vocabulary in the ESL classroom be reexamined, and that serious consideration be given to teaching ESL students the discoursal properties of English.

Cohen, A. (1975). Error correction and the training of language teachers. Modern Language Journal, 59, 414-422.

This article deals with the pedagogical applications for error analysis and error correction or the approaches to error correction. In deciding whether or not to correct errors and when to correct errors, the teacher needs basic information on the error and the importance of correction. Errors which require treatment are: errors affecting intelligibility, high-frequency errors, errors at a high level of generality, errors with a stigmatizing or irritating effect, errors affecting a large percentage of students, and errors that are reluctant to the pedagogic focus. The author discusses ease of correction, characteristics of the student, the nature of the teacher correction and reservations on error analysis. For example, does error analysis give the teacher a good feel for the learner's linguistic competence? Does correction run contrary to the natural language-learning process? Does error analysis put too great a premium on error-free speech?

(20)

Cohen, A. (1976). A new focus on language learners' errors. 'Alon Lemorim Leanglit/English Teachers Journal, 16, 33-36. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1978, 12, Abstract No. 7803484)

The error analysis field in its current form is discussed. Learners' errors are referred to as clues to the learners' control of the target language; his "interlanguage." The steps in error analysis are identified, and two basic error sources are noted: negative transfer from the native language, and overgeneralization within the target language. Examples of different types of errors are provided and speculations are made as to the benefits of enlightened error correction. Reference is made to some recent research articles in the field.

Cohen, A. & Robbins, M. (1976). Toward assessing interlanguage performance: The relationship between selected errors, learners' characteristics and learners' explanations. Language Learning, 26, 45-66. (From Language Teaching, 1979, 12, Abstract No. 78-100)

This study dealt empirically with certain aspects of second-language learning among three university students, who all had a relative degree of proficiency in Mandarin and who were in an advanced English-as-a-second-language class at UCLA. An error analysis of written verb forms was undertaken with two purposes in mind: (1) to determine the short-term effects of teacher correction procedures on the eradication of errors and (2) to relate interlanguage background (past language experiences, current language environment, and language-learning strategies) and learners' explanation of errors to the errors themselves. A close look at the effects of correction in written work revealed that correction was neither systematic nor enlightened enough to actually influence the production of errors. Although broad in scope and in some ways rudimentary, the gathering of interlanguage background information and error explanations from the learners provided useful insights concerning the production of errors and what these errors tell us about interlanguage.

Cronnell, B. (1985). Language influences in the English writing of third- and sixth-grade Mexican-American students. Journal of Educatonal Research, 78, 168-173.

This article presents an analysis of the errors found in a set of writing samples produced by third- and sixth-grade Mexican-American children attending an inner-city school in a low-income neighborhood in a large metropolitan area. The analysis focuses on those errors that may be influenced by language usage--from Spanish, "interlanguage," and/or Chicano English. Several error types seem to be particularly influenced by such speech patterns; in addition, some errors appear to be influenced by Spanish spelling. Implications are drawn to specific error treatment in the classroom.

(23)

Das, B. (1977). The remediation of learners' errors. RELC Journal, 8, 51-60. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1978, 12, Abstract No. 7801632)

The problems faced by teachers of college level English in India are discussed. Difficulties stem from the large number of students, and their uneven background in English. Much teaching at this level must be remedial. The questions of learners' errors has been discussed, but rarely from the pedagogical viewpoint. The study of error analysis (EA) is criticized. This approach emphasizes the similarities between first and second language acquisition and the importance of rules. Even if this viewpoint is correct, it must be emphasized that correct feedback and reinforcement must be available. This is often not the case due to the poor linguistic ability of many teachers. EA claims that all errors are rule-governed and the learner is the controller of the learning process. This approach is detatched and avoids therapy in favor of diagnosis. The teacher must not use this as an excuse to shirk responsibility--students must be motivated. It is important to establish a teaching standard--a Standard Indian English. College teachers must avoid mere repetition of earlier teaching.

(24)

Day, R., Chenoweth, N., Chun, A. & Luppescu, S. (1983). Foreign language learning and the treatment of spoken errors. Language Learning and Communication, 2, 215-226. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1984, 18, Abstract No. 8403863)

After discussing the results of some descriptive studies and reviews of the reactions of classroom teachers to learners' errors, an investigation of the reactions of native speakers of English to the errors of non-native speaker friends (N=36) are analyzed. Tapes of native speakers' (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) conversations showed that NSs corrected types of errors: discourse, fact, word choice or vocabulary, word ommission and syntax. Results show that NSs corrected a relatively small percent of NNS errors and that the percentage of factual errors corrected was more than double the percent of the next highest category for discourse errors. Discourse errors were corrected 15% of the time, syntactic errors 5% of the time, and deletion errors only 2.5% of the time. In comparing these results with the findings of classroom studies, it is noted that while much teacher feedback was inconsistent and unclear, NS feedback was generally consistent and clear. NSs usually ignored grammatical mistakes and corrected those that interfered with communication facts, discourse, and vocabulary. This suggests that classroom teachers might correct student errors through direct, focused correction, done after the NNS completes the utterance. It is also suggested that more attention be given to teaching vocabulary and less to syntax.

(25)

Day, R., Chenoweth, N., Chun, E., & Luppescu, S. (1984). Foreign language learning and the treatment of spoken errors. Language Learning, 34(2), 19-45. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 19, Abstract No. 8500434)

Reported are results of an investigation into how native speakers of English provide feedback to errors in conversations with nonnative speaker friends. Other types of non-corrective conversational repair are also presented. From approximately 12.7 hours taped conversation in social settings (N=20), it was learned that native speakers responded to errors by using either on- or off-record corrective feedback, and they used several noncorrective discourse devices to repair conversational difficulties; word searches, requests for help, clarification requests, and confirmation checks. The interaction of corrective feedback is described, which shows that much of native speaker corrective feedback occurs at transition points in conversation, not as interruptions.

(26)

Dietrich, R. (1982). Selbstkorrekturen. Fallstudien zum mundlichen gebrauch des Deutschen als fremdsprache durch erwachsene (Self-corrections. Case studies of German spoken by adult second language learners). LILI: Zeitschrift fur Literaturwissenschaft un Linguistik, 12, 120-149. (From Language Teaching, 1983, 16, Abstract No. 83-289)

From the wide range of self-correction phenomena, about 1000 corrections of inflectional morphemes have been analysed. They are taken from everyday conversations with Japanese and American students speaking German as a second language. Four variables are used: (a) strength, i.e. tendency to monitor output, as measured by number of corrected words in relation to text length; (b) concentration, i.e. number of corrections relative to number of inflected words; (c) certainty, i.e. relation between corrected forms and non-standard forms; (d) success, i.e. proportion of attempts leading to correct result. Major findings are: (1) Semantically weak or empty categories, such as gender or case, are more often corrected that semantically important categories such as person, number or tense. (2) Frequency correlates highly with susceptibility to monitoring. (3) Semanticity and frequency have to be completed by factors of on-line production; thus anticipating corrections are less successful than retrospective corrections.

(27)

Dingwall, S. (1984). Focus on the teacher: Some EFL/ESL teachers' views on teaching with special reference to the treatment of error. Die Neueren Sprachen, 83, 386-399. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1985, 19, Abstract No. 8502300)

It is argued that the recent tendency in applied linguistic research to concentrate on language learning has contributed to the paucity of studies of variation among teachers. Yet the so-called teacher variable has long been recognized as a prime determiner of the outcome of a language class. Some findings of a 1981 survey of English as a second language (ESL) teachers are presented. Terms used by teachers (Rs=550) are examined in order to explore the hypothesis that language teachers possess a semi-technical vocabulary for discussing classroom practice. Replies to two questions about the treatment of error are explored. An examination of teachers' views on important pedagogical issues begins to shed light on the nature of heterogeneity in the EFL/ESL teaching profession, with various implications for teacher training.

(28)

Edge, J. (1979). Teaching writing in large classes. English Language Teaching Journal, 34, 146-148.

The EFL teacher is faced with two problems in large classes; (1) there is no opportunity for oral input into written work, and (2) too much time is spent in grading papers. The solution proposed was worked out at the University of Alexandria between 1973 and 1977 in classes of up to 48 students. The first step is to itemize the types of papers the students are asked to do in all university work. The second step is to itemize the types of writing the students will be asked to do in the "real world." The teacher then divides the class into groups according to paper type. Errors are marked, focussing on only a few to highlight them. Then the other group corrects those errors. The final stage is for the correction group to devise simple oral and written practice to support corrections they have made. Peer-correction is both effective and time-saving.

(29)

Esser, U. (1984). Fremdsprachenpsychologische betrachtungen zur fehlerproblematik im fremdsprachenunterricht (Foreign-language-psychological observations on the problems of errors in foreign-language instruction). Deutsch als Fremdsprache, 21, 151-159. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1985, 19, Abstract No. 8500295)

Discussed, against the background of findings of modern research on foreign-language acquisition, are questions concerning error in sentence and text production. It is argued that errors in foreign-language use from the learner's viewpoint are not necessarily errors but an expression of the specific character of a particular developmental phase of interim competence. Two possible (interrelated) explanations of the origin of errors are discussed: (1) the model of interim languages and their increasing complexity, and (2) the cognitive deficit/development hypothesis. Implications of the findings of error analysis research for foreign-language teaching are discussed and recommendations are offered.

Fanselow, J. (1974). The treatment of error in oral work. Foreign Language Annals, 10, 583-593.

Frequently, discussions about language teaching include the questions: Which types of errors should be treated and which ignored? How should errors be treated? To see the extent to which the behaviors of teacher could help answer these questions, eleven teachers were videotaped teaching the same lesson to their classes. Transcripts were made, containing both verbal and non-verbal behaviors. The analysis of tapes showed that both the types of errors treated and the treatments used were quite similar. The teachers seemed less concerned with errors of grammar than with incorrect meaning. Giving the right answer was the most popular treatment. The similarity of behavior among the teachers did not provide as much insight into the treatment of errors as was hoped for. The process of analysis did lead to a number of ideas about possible alternative treatments. The treatments suggested are based on the importance in learning of contrasts, redundancy, explicit feedback, and the difference between long- and short-term memory.

(31)

Folarin, A.B. (1984). "Pseudo-grammatical" and "pseudo-lexical" errors in written EL2 Texts. International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 22, 59-63.

Language specialists find important the influence of spoken language performance on written performance in L2 and FL settings. This article revolves around a 1970's study in Nigeria to propose a functional linguistic framework for error-analysis in written English of Nigerian students and to verify that framework by applying it to a text that was deemed to be fairly representative of L2 learner's performance. One specific error category was "PHONO-GRAPHIC" (PG) errors which arise from peculiar interactions between English phonology and English graphology and are fairly distinct from essentially phonological and graphological errors. The main part of the article is about pseudo-grammatical and pseudo-lexical errors which require different descriptions and explanations from regular grammatical and lexical errors in practical language research and require a different treatment from them in language teaching practice. These distinctions have not received adequate attention in current English language teaching practice.

Gaies, S. (1983). The investigation of language classroom processes. TESOL Quarterly, 17, 205-217. (From Language Teaching, 1984, 17, Abstract No. 84-381)

Classroom process research is based on direct observation of second-language classroom activity. Research studies in three areas are reviewed.

(1) The linguistic environment of second language teaching: research shows that the teacher is an important source of linguistic imput, and his/her language is highly tuned to the learners' level of proficiency, thus presumably facilitating learning. The production of particular features of speech by learners is related to the frequency with which those features occur in linguistic imput.

(2)Patterns of classroom interaction: the focus of research has shifted to this area from (1), in the hope that interactional patterns may indicate how learners internalise input. Research on questions in and out of the classroom shows that more than half of teachers' questions were of the "display" type (intended to elicit information already known to the questioner), whereas outside the classroom referential questions predominated, display questions hardly ever occurring. Because the latter do not invite lengthy replies or sustained interaction they do not provide optimal input. Research on interaction analysis shows that learners' participation in class is highly variable--learners fall into two main categories, high input generators and low input generators. The former are more active in

class, more field-independent, and generate more input in out-of-class contact with native speakers. This indicates important differences in learning experience, as does research on turn-taking and research on learners with limited English proficiency (LEP). LEP learners have significantly fewer interactions with their teacher than do their native-speaker counterparts, and those they have tend to involve classroom management more than actual teaching.

(3) Error treatment: research reveals that errors are not treated at all systematically by teachers; in one study, 22 per cent of errors went without treatment, either not noticed or ignored. Explicit correction occurred less frequently than indirect or implicit feedback. In one study, students expressed a wish to be corrected more frequently. Variables influencing the type of error treatment are type of class activity during which the error occurs, level of instruction, style of teacher. Error treatment is often inconsistent and ambiguous, but is central to the effectiveness of the teaching. This is an area which perfectly illustrates the complexity of the classroom process. Some recent alternative approaches to classroom research include the anthropological, qualitative and mentalistic, including diary studies of learner and teacher, and other introspective and retrospective studies.

Gaies, S.J. (1983). Learner feedback: An exploratory study of its role in the second language classroom. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition (pp. 190-212). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

The author begins the article with a statement that successful formal language learning involves careful matching of learner characteristics, the learning setting, and methodology. A primary focus in this area has been the study of teacher-learner verbal interaction.

A pilot study is detailed which provides a point of departure for the study of learner feedback. Based on observation of real classroom activity, the study describes ways in which L2 learners participate in the structuring of discourse. The description presented is, in itself, not sufficient for developing generalizations about learner feedback. Implications for classroom feedback are drawn.

(35)

Giannotti, J. M. (1982). Errors in the ESL classroom. Language Quarterly, 20, 23-26.

Not available.

Hamayan, E. V. (1980, March). Teachers' reactions to students' language errors; a preliminary report. Paper presented at the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Convention, San Francisco.

Not available.

Hammerly, H. (1982). Contrastive phonology and error analysis. IRAL, 21, 17-32. (From Language Teaching, 1983, 16, Abstract No. 83-53)

Results are presented of a phonetic test, carried out with fifty English-speaking university students after forty-five hours of Spanish teaching. The frequency and type of fault corresponded to the predictions of contrastive analysis for a hierarchy of persistence of phonological errors. It also emerged that structuralist concepts of phoneme and allophone are useful in the prediction, description and explanation of pronunciation errors in foreign-language teaching. (Chart lists the forty-five problems tested, in decreasing order of difficulty.)

Applications for the classroom are that a gradual audiolingual introduction to the foreign language sound system with the use of a supportive transcriptional aid is recommended in order to minimise the negative effects of spelling on pronunciation.

(38)

Hendrickson, J. (1976). The effects of error correction treatments upon adequate and accurate communication in the written compositions of adult learners of English as a second language. (Doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1976). Dissertations Abstracts International, 37, 7002A.

This study was conducted for two purposes: (1) to provide information on the effects of two types of error correction treatment upon the communicative adequacy and linguistic accuracy in students' written compositions, and (2) to provide information on the major problems that occurred when foreign students wrote in English.

The researcher developed criteria for classifying students' written errors as either global or local errors, based on the definitions of these two terms by Burt and Kiparsky. Each global and local error was further classified in one of three categories: lexical, morphological and syntactic forms and structures of English that were misused, omitted or misspelled.

The study was conducted during an eight-week period at The Ohio State University in the Spring of 1976. The sample population consisted of 24 foreign-born adults who voluntarily enrolled in a course of intermediate English as a foreign language taught by the researcher.

In the second week of their English course, students took two pretests: one test to measure their ability to describe in written English three picture stories adapted from the Picture Composition Book by Hill, and one test to measure their proficiency in English

grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension via Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (Form A). For each student, the researcher first calculated a global error ratio (consisting of the number of global errors divided by the number of words written on the composition pretest), then formed two groups: students who obtained a low global error ratio, and the students who obtained a high global error ratio. The median global error ratio determined the cutoff point between low and high groups. Students in each of the two groups were randomly assigned to one of two error correction treatments: correction of global errors only, and correction of all global and local errors.

For six weeks, all students described, in written English, 18 different picture stories adapted from the Hill book. The researcher corrected the compositions according to the particular error treatment that student had been assigned.

In the ninth week, students took two posttests comprising the same measures used for the two pretests.

The findings of this study were as follows: (1) the analysis of variance revealed no significant differences in improvement across groups of the main and interaction effects of the two independent variables on the three dependent variables, (2) the major problems that occurred when students described the picture stories were lack of sufficient knowledge and spelling of the real items, misuse of prepositions, lack of subject-verb agreement, and incorrect word order.

(40)

Hendrickson, J. (1978). The treatment of error in written work. The Modern Language Journal, 64, 216-221. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1982, 16, Abstract No. 8203887)

Language learning is a creative process and error correction benefits adults who learn foreign languages in classrooms. It is hypothesized that correcting composition errors by providing the correct forms and structures is not only a time-consuming chore, but actually it may also hinder learning. Rather, a combined selective-discovery approach may be more worthwhile. Before correcting written errors, teachers should consider at least four critical factors: (1) the student's purpose and goals for communicating in writing, (2) the student's written proficiency in the target language, (3) the teacher's awareness of what types and frequencies of written errors students produce and an understanding of how these two aspects relate to students' writing goals, and (4) the students' attitudes toward making errors and toward error correction itself. Eight indirect and direct strategies for correcting composition errors are illustrated, and a sample composition using these strategies is presented, as well as a description of seven practical activities for dealing with students' composition errors in the language classroom.

(41)

Hendrickson, J. (1979). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research and practice. Modern Language Journal, 62, 387-398. (From Language Teaching, 16, Abstract No. 80-131)

A brief review of attitudes to error correction shows a movement towards accepting errors in the interest of creating an encouraging atmosphere for communication. Instead of trying to prevent errors, we can learn from them. The literature on the subject shows that (1) no current standards exist on correction, (2) there are few linguistic criteria of grammatical and lexical correction in foreign language teaching, and (3) much of what has been published is speculative, and in need of validation.

Some implications drawn from the literature are offered; these include: (a) correction improves L2 proficiency; (b) correcting every error is counter-productive; (c) error taxonomies are being developed which classify errors in communicative terms; (d) direct correction has proved ineffective; (e) peer or self-correction may be as effective as teacher correction for some students.

(42)

Hendrickson, J. (1979). Evaluating spontaneous communication through systematic error analysis. Foreign Language Annals, 12, 357-364.

When students use a foreign language in spontaneous communication, they produce varying frequencies of different error types. This article presents a method for classifying, coding and recording oral and written errors systematically for the purpose of: (a) evaluating the quantity and quality of information in samples of students' communication, (b) diagnosing specific needs of individual language learners, (c) developing individualized instructional materials, and (d) deciding which student errors to correct first. The author also discusses several suggestions for using the method of second language acquisition research.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1984). Error analysis and selective correction in the adult ESL classroom: An experiment. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 135260. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2, Abstract No. 817)

The communicative and linguistic errors most often made by 24 ESL students were examined, and an attempt was made to determine the effect of direct teacher correction upon these students' writing proficiency. Students wrote picture-story descriptions in English and their errors were corrected according to assigned treatment. It was found that most global errors resulted from misuse of prepositions and misspelled words. An analysis of variance revealed no significant differences in students' writing proficiency attributable to error correction treatment or to grouping according to communicative ability.

Herzlich, R. (1982). Bilan d'une recherche: Les reactions du professeur aux erreurs des apprenants. Facteur neglige de l'apprentissage du francais--langue etrange. (Teacher reaction to student error--a neglected aspect of French as a foreign language.) Bulletin CILA, 36, 25-35. (From Language Teaching, 1983, 16, Abstract No. 83-464)

Over a period of five months in 1978/9, 24 French classes in Israel, comprising 600 students between the ages of 15 and 17 were studied. Types of student error and their frequency and the teachers' reactions were noted. The teachers were all French speakers but knew too little Hebrew to help students with their pronunciation problems. Consequently the most common reaction to this kind of mistake was to ignore it. Although they believed that grammatical errors should be ignored and correct replies reinforced, in practice teachers seemed unable to stop themselves correcting mistakes in grammar and many were unaware they were doing so until it was pointed out to them. The need for an approach taking into account the special difficulties of Hebrew learners of French was clear.

(45)

Jefferson, G. (1974). Error correction as an interactional resource. Language in Society, 3, 181-199.

Not available.

(46)

Joiner, E. G. (1975). Training prospective teachers in the correction of student errors. The French Review, 49, 193-197.

Audiolingualism is described as the class in which students are conditioned to produce correct responses. Drill techniques are used and trial and error is denied. Today there is a shift in emphasis toward a student's self-instructional program which is then described. The purpose of the program is twofold: (1) to sensitize future teachers to types of oral errors, and (2) to help the teacher decide how to deal with errors effectively.

The program consisted of four stages:

(1) Stage 1. The students (teachers of L2) are given packets of materials with explicit instructions for listening to tapes and reading articles dealing with error correction.

(2) Actual L2 student errors (on tapes) are used in discussion and in written assignments.

(3) The students use taped incidents which serve as a bridge between the written exercises and simulated teaching.

(4) Simulated classroom situations are used as a basis for discussion.

(47)

Kroll, B. & Schafer, J. (1977). The development of error analysis and its implications for the teaching of composition. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Kansas City, MO. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2, 1984, Abstract No. 824)

This paper suggests that teachers who use error analysis should emphasize a student's learning from his mistakes. Errors should be used as clues to the cognitive strategies that students employ when handling new information. Such an approach eliminates the problem and not just the evidence of a problem.

(48)

Lalande, J. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An experiment. The Modern Language Journal, 66, 140-149. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 18, Abstract No. 8403910)

A strategy aimed at reducing errors in written compositions of U.S. students of German as a second language was tested on a group of 60 university students, 50% experimental students and 50% controls. Students completed brief essays at the beginning of the semester as a pretest. During the semester control students participated in grammar review, read short stories, and had their compositions corrected in a traditional manner. Experimental students used the same materials but had essays marked using an error correction code and were required to rewrite them in class. An error awareness sheet was used to help make them aware of repeated mistakes in their writing. Writing samples taken at the end of the course showed that the new method did prevent students from making more grammatical and orthographic errors, and that experimental students showed an across-the-board reduction of errors in all categories.

Lamy, A. (1976). Pedagogie de la faute ou de l'acceptabilitie. (Teaching theory based on error or acceptability.) Études de Linguistique Appliquee, 22, 118-127. (From Language Teaching, 10, Abstract No. 77-53)

Pupils developing from childhood to adolescence manifest faults in their written production of L2 caused by systematic errors (over-generalization, conflation of two rules, partial ignorance of syntactic structure) which are intrinsic to the learning process. They are at a stage following acquisition and preceding productive competence. Oral repetition drills are contra-indicated. Occasional class discussions aid pupils to complete the learning process, especially if the original error has resulted in a shift of meaning. Discussion leads pupils to make finer semantic distinctions, to re-group words in context, and subsequently to self-correction.

(50)

Landriault, B. (1980). Analyse des erreurs et enseignment des langue. (Error analysis and the teaching of languages.) Bulletin of the CAAL, 2, 84-97. (From Language Teaching, 15, Abstract No.82-45)

The structural and behavioralist approach to language teaching which prevailed until 1965 regarded errors as requiring correction. However, from the late 1960's--which saw the emergence of the concept of the interlangue--errors, as destinct from mere mistakes, came to be seen as a necessary part of the learning process.

Research has tended to confirm that, whereas phonological errors are usually the result of interference from the mother tongue, this is not necessarily the case with errors of morphology, syntax or vocabulary. There is also evidence of similarities between the process of acquisition of the mother tongue and the learning strategies adopted by foreign-language learners. By adopting a positive attitude towards error the teacher can assist the student to master the target language and also to understand the learning process.

(51)

Lee, W. (1976). Encouraging and discouraging mistakes. Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 1, 228-249. (From Language Teaching, 10, Abstract No. 77-136)

Second-language learners have been shown to make some of the same types of mistakes as first-language learners, but there is very little evidence as far as the foreign-language situation is concerned. First- and second-learners learn, and are obliged to learn, by making mistakes. Foreign-language learners, on the other hand, do not have to learn in this way to anything like the same extent. The attitude of the language teacher and course writer towards mistakes should therefore be that mistakes can aid an understanding of how students are learning and mislearning; but language-teaching procedures which seem likely to cause students to make them should be avoided.

(52)

Levenston, E. (1983). Error analysis of free composition: The theory and the practice. Alon Lemorim Leanglit/ English Teachers' Journal, 29, 36-45. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 19, Abstract No. 8500534)

Using the algorithm developed by S. Pit Corder as a basis for providing data for describing idiosyncratic dialects, a new approach to error analysis is developed. Taking as a base an essay written by a learner of a second language, a reconstruction of the original essay, that is, a set of well-formed sentences having the same meaning as the original essay, is developed. In a further step, a reformulation that is essentially an editing process is composed. This method of going from text to reconstruction to reformulation is suggested for use in the language classroom.

(53)

Lott, D. (1983). Analysing and counteracting interference errors. English Language Teaching Journal, 37, 256-261.

Not available.

(54)

Lucas, E. (1975). Teachers' Reacting Moves Following Errors Made by Pupils in Post-Primary English as a Second Language Classes in Israel. Unpublished master's thesis. Tel Aviv University.

Not available.

(55)

Magnan, S. (1979). Reduction and error correction for communicative language use: The focus approach. The Modern Language Journal, 63, 342-349. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 15, Abstract No. 8105002)

Presented is an instructional model for minimal communicative ability in a foreign language which (1) reduces the pedagogical corpus, and (2) provides for a schedule of error correction. Insights are drawn from characteristics of pidginized language: (A) lexical reduction and use of paraphrases and circumlocutions, (B) heavy reliance on extralinguistic features, (C) replacement of inflectional endings by free forms, (D) invariant representation of formatives, (E) elimination of redundancy, and (F) reduction of the transformational apparatus. The error correction schedule outlines a means of gradually imposing language-specific constraints in order to elaborate and enrich a reduced classroom interlanguage to produce a language variety more closely approximating the target language norm.

(54)

Magnan, S. (1982). Native speaker reaction as a criterion for error correction. In Garfinkel, A., Mitchell, S., & Moody, L. (Eds.), ESL and the Foreign Language Teacher: Selected Papers from the 1982 Central States Conference (pp.30-46). Skokie, IL: National Textbook.

Not available.

(51)

Matthews-Bresky, R. J. H. (1979). What price correctness? English Language Teaching Journal, 33, 254-262.

The author subscribes to the assumption that the form of the language does have an effect on the meaning. Even for non-teachers, the use of incorrect structures can create a case of ambiguity. A basic concern is "language manners"; listeners are likely to "turn off' a speaker who does not communicate fluently. ESL interlanguage is an exception where errors are tolerated as long as communication is not impeded. A central question is posed: What licence, if any, can be admitted to purely formal error in strictly EFL situations? The author concludes that in all second language teaching, communication is prime. Correctness is not a disposable commodity, and error treatment techniques should take this into account.

(58)

Murray, I. (1984). Making sense of learners' errors: A psycholinguistic reappraisal. British Journal of Language Teaching, 22, 105-113. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 19, Abstract No. 8502416)

Outlined are the behaviorist and cognitive theories of learning (extrapolated from first-language acquisition) that underlie the two principle approaches to the interpretation of errors in second-language learning: the contrastive analysis hypothesis and the error analysis hypothesis. The former argues that in learning a new language, habits acquired while learning the native language will hinder or facilitate the formation of habits in the second language depending on the differences or similarities between them. The shortcomings of this hypothesis are evident when put to the test in real-life situations. The latter hypothesis, rooted in cognitive psychology, argues that errors provide evidence of the system of language or interlanguage that a learner uses at a particular time. This interlanguage is a separate and different system from either the learner's native language or the target language. This hypothesis argues that the learner is an active participant in the learning process, who progressively forms and revises hypotheses about the language input while adding to this expanding rule system of the language. The errors of children learning a second language seem to reveal similar processes to those used in first-language acquisition. The persistence of certain erroneous forms that have become fossilized in the adult learner's interlanguage leads to a taxonomy of certain strategies that account for these errors. It is concluded that although this taxonomy is not yet refined, further research should broaden its scope.

Nystrom, N. (1983). Teacher-student interaction in bilingual classrooms: Four approaches to error feedback. In H. Seliger & M. Long (Eds.), Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition (pp. 169-188). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

No specific methodology to teach young ESL students has been shown to be best. Teachers should provide plenty of comprehensible input and encourage hypothesis-testing. This article focuses on teacher responses to student errors and socio-linguistic variables that can influence those responses.

Results of previous studies indicate that error correction is a highly variable aspect of student-teacher interaction: each interactive situation is quite complex.

Twenty-four hours of videotapes were collected from first-grade classrooms in which bilinguals were given oral instruction. The question asked was: How do teachers influence the language environment by responding to speech errors made by their students? Chaudron's (1977) descriptive model of discourse in corrective treatment of learners' errors provided a point of departure.

The corrective styles of the four teachers involved are connected to their teaching styles in general. Young learners should have access to the language environment which gives them opportunities for meaningful interaction.

(60)

Palmer, D. (1980). Expressing error gravity. English Language Teaching Journal, 34, 93-96.

If teachers are to use the information gained from error analysis, some standardized way of expressing insights into error analysis must be devised. The author has come up with a mathematical means of expressing which errors are the most serious. Proposed EGD (error/gravity distribution) to answer this need. "Seriousness" is related to frequency as opposed to the notion of seriousness set forth by Burt and Kiparsky in The Gooficon.

When examining EGD profiles for certain groups, teachers will be able to use this information in their classroom methodology.

(61)

Pilleux, M. (1982). Correcting without frustration. TESL Reporter, 15, 52-56. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 1984, 18, Abstract No. 8400378)

On the basis of research into error analysis in foreign language acquisition, suggestions are made for classroom application. Different correction techniques for different types of activity are proposed.

Porquier, R. & Frauenfelder, U. (1980). Enseignants et apprenants face a l'erreur: Ou de l'autre cote du miroir. (Teachers and learners in the face of error: Or through the looking-glass.) Francais dans le Monde, 154, 29-36. (From Language Teaching, 14, Abstract No. 81-195)

Errors have traditionally been regarded in three ways, either as (a) a sign of inadequate teaching, (b) inevitable and ineradicable, (c) a means to learning.

All these approaches are inadequate. From the point of view of the teacher, it is a matter of some difficulty both to decide when an error has been made, and if so, when, how, and in what context to correct it. Factors such as the characteristics of learner and teacher, the pedagogic context and the nature and frequency of the error have also to be considered. For the learner, mother-tongue interference and the sequence of interlanguages are of importance in the production of errors, which often leave the learner confused and disoriented in the face of problems whose origin and significance he does not comprehend or appreciate. It is necessary to understand the process of learning to be able to discern and evaluate such difficulties.

What is needed is not new teaching techniques or methodologies, but a profound change of attitude to errors and to the teaching and learning of languages. There needs to be a more positive approach to errors, which will simultaneously place them in their proper context in the continuum of the apprenticeship of language learning, while maintaining a global approach which will lead to more equitable relations between teacher and learner.

Pouw, A. (1984). Het korrigeren van fouten bij het leren spreken van een vreemde taal. (The treatment of errors in communicative oral training: A review.) Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen, 18, 81-97. (From Language Teaching, 18, Abstract No. 85-379)

Teachers of foreign languages have many problems in dealing with errors in oral communicative exercises: should errors be corrected or does correction interfere with the communicative effort of students? This study reviews research in this field, in particular the need for correction, its effects and the risk of "fossilization." Emphasis is on the studies of teachers' correction behavior in the classroom, which seems to be ambiguous for students; the effects on communication are rather negative. There are few studies dealing with oral work and peer-correction or self-correction. Studies on grammatical judgments show the need for prudence. Effective studies of error gravity from a communicative point of view have to be set up. The effects of methodologies of error prevention or correction need to be studied. The effects of errors have to be measured in communicative situations by means of native- non-native interaction.

Raabe, H. (1983). Die korrektur mundlicher fehler im Spanischen: Einsichten aus der sprachlernforschung. (The correction of oral errors in Spanish: The language-learning research perspective.) Grazer Linguistische Studien, 19, 159-183. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 19, Abstract No. 8502421)

Theoretical aspects of second-language errors and their correction are examined in terms of the variable whose (errors), when, what, and by whom. Psychosocial an ethnosociological aspects are discussed and the relationship between error correction and introduction phase and objective is noted. Morphological, syntactic, lexical, and pragmatic errors are distinguished and the didactic significance of self-correction is stressed.

Richards, D. (1977). On communicative efficiency and the treatment of error. Audio-Visual Language Journal, 15, 245-250. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 15, Abstract No. 8103495)

The problem of dealing with inevitable errors of language acquisition is considered. Recent work indicates that such systematic errors may represent the infant's imperfect grammar. Whether errors are hypothesis-testing mechanisms remains a question. The educator may do well to try to decrease errors rather than encourage them for fluency, especially in advanced stages. Techniques of corrective feedback might include corrections of important errors but not encouragement of relatively minor ones.

(44)

Richards, J. C. (1971). Error analysis and second language strategies. Language Sciences, 17, 12-22.

Not available.

(67)

Robbins, M. (1976). The Effects of Feedback on the Eradication of Errors in Verb Forms by ESL Students. Unpublished master's thesis. UCLA, Los Angeles, CA.

Not available.

(68)

Rogers, M. (1981). A reappraisal of the notion of "carelessness" in L2 production. British Journal of Language Teaching, 19, 73-77. (From Language Teaching, 15, Abstract No. 82-396)

Three types of errors are: pre-systematic (random and arbitrary), systematic (revealing the learner's hypotheses about L2), and post-systematic (the practice stage in which practice may not match theory--the student knows the rule but fails to apply it correctly). "Carelessness" is frequently cited as a cause of learner error, but since the learner's system is unstable, so-called "careless" errors are inevitable. Correction is helpful because it is necessary input and provides a model against which learners can match their productive use of language.

(69)

Ross, S. (1982). The effects of direct and heuristic correction on first-year level college compositions. JALT Journal, 4, 97-108. (From Language Teaching, 17, Abstract No. 84-64)

Many experienced teachers of EFL composition have found that withholding specific information about errors in general is a sound techique. Yet, a review of the literature shows that there is no concensus about the kinds of errors that should be left up to the learner to edit and those errors which are best dealt with by the instructor. This study attempts to estimate the efficiency of a direct correction approach compared with a discovery method, which requires the learners to edit their own papers with a minimum of guidance from the instructor. Frequencies of particular types of errors were calculated and a comparison was made between group membership and subsequent numbers of individuals making errors in each error category above or below the total mean. This information provides a general index to the types of mistakes that proved to be correctable and those that were not, thus suggesting a hierarchy for direct as opposed to heuristic feedback.

(70)

Schacter, J. (1981). The hand signal system. TESOL Quarterly, 15, 125-138. (From Language Teaching, 15, Abstract No. 82-307)

When a student produces an error the teacher needs to make an instant decision on whether to correct the error, and, if so, on how to correct it. Three commonly used verbal feedback techniques are discussed and criticised, and a proposal is put forward for a nonverbal feedback technique comprising a set of hand signals, each of which is used to indicate a certain error type. There is discussion of the value of the use of negative feedback in the classroom.

(71)

Schegloff, E., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. Language, 53, 361-382.

An organization of repair operates in conversation, addressed to recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding. Several features of that organization are introduced to explicate the mechanism which produces a strong empirical skewing in which self-repair predominates over other-repair, and to show the operation of a preference for self-repair in the organization of repair. Several consequences of the preference for self-repair for conversational interaction are sketched.

(72)

Schwartz, J. (1977). Repair in converstions between adult second language learners of English. Unpublished master's thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, CA. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2, 1984, Abstract No. 669)

This thesis is an investigation of the ways adult second-language learners deal with error and trouble sources in their conversations with one another and a comparison with repairs made by native speakers. Data were collected from three videotaped conversations between pairs of friends with varying language backgrounds and proficiencies. An examination of the conversations showed that the repair work done by the adult second language learners was similar to repairs by native speakers, but the corrections of the second language learners were the result of incompetence in phonology, syntax, and lexicon. Generally, second language learners can benefit by conversing with one another.

(73)

Semke, H. (1984). Effects of the red pen. Foreign Language Annals, 17, 195-202. (From Language Teaching, 18, Abstract No. 85-225)

A research study, conducted for 10 weeks with 141 first-year, third-quarter German students at the University of Minnesota, compared the effects of four methods of teacher treatment of free-writing assignments: (1) writing comments and questions rather than corrections; (2) marking all errors and supplying the correct forms; (3) combining positive comments and corrections; and (4) indicating errors by means of a code and requiring students to find corrections and then rewrite the assignment.

Results indicate that students' progress is enhanced by writing practice alone. Corrections do not increase writing accuracy, writing fluency, or general language proficiency, and they may have a negative effect on student attitudes, especially when students must make corrections by themselves.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1979). Optimalising interlanguage feedback to the foreign-language learner. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 2, 17-28. (From Language Teaching, 14, Abstract No. 81-191)

A communicative approach may encourage early fossilization of errors--the learner is allowed to make mistakes as long as he gets his message across. Feedback of necessity involves interpretation by the learner, thus delaying the onset of fossilization. A new approach is described in which the adult learner is involved more systematically and intensively with his own interlanguage and its development. Students kept a record sheet of their errors and the contexts in which they were made during a writing course, and discussed these errors with the teacher at an "error clinic." The teacher attempted to only mark out and classify the error, giving further help only if the student could not find the answer himself. In this way the error was recycled and worked on. The "clinic" ended with a discussion of general problems in correcting errors and in the course as a whole. It was felt that 20-25 minutes was an ideal length for each interview, at least until the teachers become skilled in the technique. Teachers tended to underestimate the amount of explanatory context needed: often two sentences are needed. Most students found the method useful. Keeping a record made it possible to generalise about the errors produced, but errors were not always recurring and sometimes covered a broad spectrum, making commentary difficult. The individualisation of the teaching method seems to have raised motivation.

(75)

Sheal, P. (1981). Proof-reading as a means of reducing student errors. English Language Teaching Journal, 35, 405-407. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2,1984, Abstract No. 919)

Although the results of a pilot project on the effectiveness of proofreading exercises to reduce common student errors were not as dramatic as anticipated, the project proved to be constructive, and the suggestions of the authors are worthy of consideration since the students should be able to proofread their own writing eventually. The report indicates that more time should be spent giving students exercises that are related to their individual needs (spelling, punctuation,etc.), and that if more time is spent on a program of proofreading, the results would be more dramatic, since students were capable of correcting their own errors.

(74)

Sitnov, Y. (1983). Psikhologicheskiy i metodicheskiy aspekty probiemy otritsatel'nogo rechevogo opyta pri izuchenii inostrannogo yazyka. (Psychological and methodological aspects of the problem of negative speech experience in the study of a foreign language.) Inostrannye Yazyki v Shkole, 50, 45-49. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 19, Abstract No. 8500385)

Current theories and pedagogical techniques for second-language instruction reveal highly contradictory methods of handling student speech errors. Students are discouraged from making grammatically incorrect sentences, yet the suppression of errors leads to considerable clouding of the language-learning mechanisms. Following a review of the literature, a five-level hierarchization of the seriousness of errors is presented.

(77)

Strawn, D. J. (1977). Teacher feedback to students in selected English as a second language classes (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University Teachers College, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 38,

Feedback is central to ESL error treatment, yet methodology texts offer a limited range of recommendations. In response to this lack of information, this study took up the question in relation to a particular group of ESL lessons. A descriptive analysis of nine selected lessons was done to answer the questions: (1) What types of feedback were generally made available to students? and (2) How were different types of feedback used in relation to different types of student performance?

Lessons were taught by experienced ESL teachers using identical lesson plans; they were then videotaped and transcribed for study. Bellack's pedagogical move was used with a coding system to study each episode dealing with a particular performance. The study identifies errors in the student's performance moves and classifies performance episodes. Fourteen types of teacher feedback were identified. Student performance was classified according to language errors: 69% were without errors and 31% had errors distributed evenly among four performance types representing different errors.

While types of errors were associated with the kinds of performance episodes, the type of feedback did not show much variation.

Taylor, B. (1980). Adult learning strategies and their pedagogical implications. In K. Croft (Ed.), Readings on English as a Second Language (pp. 144-152). Boston: Little, Brown.

In beginning to learn a new language, second language learners rely on their ability to analogize, systematize, and regularize the target language data immediately. Because of their lack of familiarity with the second language, they rely on the native language for support. With increased proficiency, they rely more and more on the target language, coping directly with it and overgeneralizing its rules. At this stage, a remedial approach involving review, contrast and correction, and re-review can be most beneficial in order to re-acquaint the students with the intricacies of target language grammar, and to help them learn to use the TL rules which they have already mastered in an appropriate way. Error treatment strategies are discussed.

Valdman, A. (1975). Learner systems and error analysis. The ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 7, 219-258. (From Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, 13, Abstract No. 7903382)

Similar to first language acquisition, second language learning involves hypotheses about input data revealed by speaker errors. Previous language acquisition models have believed firmly in the avoidance of errors, but more modern approaches view errors as necessary and desirable. They can form the basis of a productive teaching process where the learner is allowed to rely on his source language to form utterances in the target language. Errors can and must be corrected in the classroom, but in keeping with classroom activities and each learner's development. Language teaching objectives must be made more reasonable--it is not possible for some students to do some things under a data-overload situation. Both expressive and reference rules must be learned. Error correction must be congruent to intelligibility in context and learner readiness for such new input. Expansion is one way to perfect correction.

(80)

Vann, R. J. & others. (1984). Error gravity: A study of faculty opinion of ESL errors. TESOL Quarterly, 18, 427-440.

This study is part of a larger project which examines faculty response to the written errors of students who are non-native speakers of English. The particular study described here was designed to determine which sentence-level errors are judged to be most serious by an academic community and to discover what factors may influence this judgment. A survey was conducted to measure how a cross-section of faculty at Iowa State University respond to certain common ESL writing errors. The 164 respondents did not judge all errors as equally grievous; rather, their judgments generated a hierarchy of errors. The study also suggests that both the age and academic discipline of faculty members may be important factors in predicting their response to certain ESL student writing errors.

(81)

White, L. (1977). Error analysis and error correction in adult learners of English as a second language. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 13, 42-58. (From Language Teaching, 11, Abstract No. 78-179)

Twelve Spanish-speaking adults learning English as a second language were tested using the Bilingual Syntax Measure and their errors were analyzed. Eight of them were subsequently presented with their errors in written form and asked to correct them. The 12 adults produced a total of 451 errors, of which 20.6% were due to interference from Spanish, 60.3% were developmental and 19% were from other sources. There was no variation in the proportions of errors from different sources according to academic status: intermediate students produced 60.3% developmental errors and advanced students produced 60.2%. Most subjects both intermediate and advanced, were only able to correct about half their errors. Their corrections of the "Is X" structure suggest that this error may be due to syntactic, rather than phonological interference.

Wingfield, R. J. (1975). Five ways of dealing with errors in written compositions. English Language Teaching Journal, 29, 311-313.

The author begins with the assumption that mistakes are bound to occur in ESL/EFL classrooms. What is the teacher to do with these mistakes? Given are five approaches to error correction in written compositions:

(1) The teacher gives sufficient clues to facilitate self-correction.

(2) The teacher corrects the script.

(3) The teacher deals with errors through marginal notes and comments.

(4) The teacher explains orally to individual students.

(5) The teacher uses the error as an illustration for a class explanation.

All these techniques have their appropriate place; the teacer merely decides the technique that will be the most effective in a given situation. It is concluded that self-correction is the most effective technique, but if the teacher is to make the correction, it is better to speak with the student than to write comments on the paper.

(83)

Witbeck, M. (1976). Peer correction proceedures for intermediate and advanced ESL composition lessons. TESOL Quarterly, 10, 321-326. (From Teaching English as a Second Language 2, 1984, Abstract No. 929)

Searching for an improved method of correcting student compositions led the author to develop procedures involving peer correction. The conventional system of putting correction marks on student papers was not effective. Witbeck describes four specific procedures that he recommends and points out that peer correction will provide students with editing and revision skills, improve student-student and teacher-student oral communication, and help students understand that "errors are probably a necessary part of the process of learning."

(84)

Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. TESOL Quarterly, 19, 79-97.

Because writing teachers invest so much time responding to student writing and because these responses reveal the assumptions teachers hold about writing, L1 writing researchers have investigated how composition teachers respond to their students' texts.

A study was undertaken to examine ESL teachers' responses to student writing. The findings suggest that ESL composition teachers make similar types of comments and are even more concerned with language-specific errors and problems. The marks and comments are often confusing, arbitrary, and inaccessible. In addition, ESL teachers, like their native-language counterparts, rarely seem to expect students to revise the text beyond the surface level.

Such responses to texts give students a very limited and limiting notion of writing, for they fail to provide students with the understanding that writing involves producing a text that evolves over time. Teachers therefore need to develop more appropriate responses for commenting on student writing. They need to facilitate revision by responding to writing as work in progress rather than judging it as a finished product.

Appendix A

Error Treatment

Pre-production: Allwright (1975), Altenberg & Vago (1983), Berwald (1981), Brown (1976), Cohen (1978 & 1979), Dietrich (1983), Esser (1985), Gaies (1984), Hammerly (1982), Hendrickson (1982), Kroll & Schafer (1977), LaLande (1984), Lamy (1977), Landriault (1982), Lee (1977), Murray (1985), Nystrom (1983), Pouw (1985), Rogers (1982), Ross (1984), Schegloff (1977), Taylor (1980), and Valdman (1979).

During production: Berwald (1981), Brown (1976), Burt & Kiparsky (1972), Cathcart & Olsen (1976), Chaudron (1978 & 1979),Day and Others (1985), Gaies (1983 & 1984), Herzlich (1983), Pilleux (1984), Pouw (1985), D. Richards (1981), Rogers (1982), Ross (1984), Schachter (1982), Schwartz (1977), Sitnov (1985), Strawn (1977), Valdman (1979), Witbeck (1976), and Zamel (1985).

Post-production: Brown (1976), Burt & Kiparsky (1972), Cardelle (81), Cohen (1979), Day & Others (1985), Edge (1979), Hendrickson (1977, 1979, 1982 & 1984), Levenston (1985), Rogers (1982), Ross (1984), Semke (1985), Sharwood Smith (1981), Sheal (1981), Vann & Others (1984), Wingfield (1975), Witbeck (1976), and Zamel (1985).

(86)

Appendix B

Error Treatment Provided by

Self: Bailey & Celce-Murcia (1979), Bruton (1984), Chaudron (1979), Dietrich (1983), Hendrickson (1978), Lamy (1977), Levenston (1985), Murray (1985), Pouw (85), Raabe (1983), Ross (1984), Schegloff (1977), Sharwood Smith (1981), Sheal (1981), White (1978), and Wingfield (1975).

Peer: Bailey & Celce-Murcia (1979), Chun & Others (1982), Day & Others (1985), Edge (1979), Gaies (1984), Hendrickson (1978), Matthews-Bresky (1979), Pouw (1985), Schwartz (1977), and Witbeck (1976).

Teacher: Allwright (1975), Bailey & Celce-Murcia (1979), Berwald (1981), Bogaards (1985), Brown (1976), Bruton & Samuda (1984), Burt & Kiparsky (1972), Cathcart & Olsen (1976), Chaudron (1978 & 1979), Cohen (1975), Cohen (1979), Cronnell (1985), Das (1978), Day & Others (1984), Dingwall (1985), Edge (1979), Gaies (1983 & 1984), Hendrickson (1977, 1978, 1982, & 1984), Herzlich (1983), Joiner (1975), Kroll & Schafer (1977), LaLande (1984), Landriault (1982), Lee (1977), Magnan (1981), Nystrom (1983), Palmer (1980), Pilleux (1984), Porqier (1981), Pouw (1985), D. Richards (1981), Ross (1984), Schacthter (1982), Semke (1985), Sharwood Smith (1981), Strawn (1977), Vann & Others (1984), Wingfield (1975), and Zamel (1985).

(87)

A Selected Annotated Bibliography of Vocabulary in Teaching ESL and EFL, 1976-1985

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Abstract

This bibliography reviews articles published in journals from 1976 to 1985 and dealing with the teaching of vocabulary to second language learners. While the scope is broad, including articles from international journals which look at second language vocabulary teaching in general as well as specific ESL/EFL publications, the aim is toward surveying the field. Abstracts of those articles dealing with vocabulary teaching in languages other than English are included as their findings are generalizable to ESL/EFL settings.

(88)

Alfes, Leonhard. (1980). Lassen sich aus latenten Lernstrategien Anspruche an ein systematisches "vocabulary building" ableiten? (Can latent learning strategies form the basis of a systematic approach to vocabulary building?) Englisch, 15(1), 1-6.

Drawing on research carried out by the author into the acquisition of vocabulary by Germans learning English, the article suggests that latent learning strategies enable a S to understand a range of words in the TL substantially larger than that which he is actually familiar. Frequently, the meaning of the new word is recognised on the basis of orthographic or phonological analogies to the NL, and by means of morphological and structural parrallels between words of each language and betweeen words in the TL. Context often leads the S to the meaning of a word never before encountered.

A knowledge of morphological theory is essential in order to teach vocabulary efficiency and does not involve vocabulary efficiently and does not involve mechanical learning of lists of related vocabulary items by Ss. Foreign language texts should, without being theoretical, draw the S's attention to morphological problems and suggest solutions by pointing out common false analogies or by referring back to similar types of word-formations in earlier chapters, for example.

(89)

Baxter, James. (1980). The dictionary and vocabulary behavior: A single word or a handful? TESOL Quarterly, 14, 325-36.

Choosing the most appropriate dictionary for students in the ESOL classroom is a recurrent problem. To provide a context for dictionary selection, this article presents a view of vocabulary referred to as "vocabulary behavior". An explicit distinction between spoken and written English reveals the relation between dictionary use, classroom vocabulary behavior and student success in meeting their communicative needs. Wheras a bilingual dictionary tends to encourage the use of a single lexical item, the monolingual dictionary demonstrates that definition is an alternative. Through use of a monolingual dictionary Ss are led to the use of conversational definition in speech and thus benefit from the full range of resources offered in spoken English. Questionnaire data are presented describing the dictionary habits and preferences of a population of Japanese Ss of English.

(90)

Binon, Jean, &Cornu, A.M. (1984). Du "receptif" au "constructif" (From "receptive" to "constructive") Bulletin Pedagogique, 50(6), 31-46.

Although the distinction between receptive and productive has often been reassessed, the concept "receptive" has never been questioned. However, research on reading and vocabulary teaching leads to questions on the validity of this distinction and the operational value of the notion "receptive" from the viewpoint of foreign-language teaching. It is shown that there is no dichotomy between receptive and productive, but one level, the interactive level, which relates to the communicative competence.

(91)

Boyd, John, & Boyd, Mary Ann. (1979). A new look at pictures. TESOL Newsletter, 13(2), 9.

A technique of using pictures in ESL classes, based on Silent Way theories, encourages communication, but retains elements of structured control. Students identify vocabulary from pictures and combine them within a framework indicated by the teacher. The teacher's primary unspoken guidance provides focus for the exercises, allowing the teacher to vary sentence complexity. The technique can be adapted to writing practice.

Brinton, Donna, & Gaskill, William. (1978). Using news broadcasts in the ESL/EFL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 12, 403-413.

Techniques for using broadcast materials and methods of comprehension assessment are presented. Noted is the degree of vocabulary recycling which occurs.

Bullard, Nick. (1985). Word-based perception: A handicap in second language acquisition? English Language Teaching Journal, 39(1),28-32.

A group of proficient speakers of a second language (n=26 native French speakers and 28 native English speakers) were tested in their ability to identify individual words excised from spoken discourse. Ss were tested in both their native language and their second language and it was found that on the average, they were more proficient in their second language than in their first. It would appear that the acquisition of a second language involves a more word-based approach than that of the first language, and that despite, or even because of, this word-level proficiency, overall comprehension is less good in the second language.

(94)

Burling, Robbins. (1983). A proposal for computer-assisted instruction in vocabulary. System, 11, 181-190.

Vocabulary acquisition is an unavoidable hurdle in language instruction; despite the unpopularity of memorization, it has thus far been the only workable approach for language competence. An alternate method that would provide both conversational context and reading experience uses a combination of listening (taped conversations) and viewing (on a computer terminal screen). This would provide the S with immediate exposure to phonation and grammar as well as vocabulary, The drawbacks to designing a computer-assisted language program seem small as access to computer terminals is common.

(95)

Butler, Jeffrey. (1979). Cache-ing in on vocabulary. TESL Reporter, 12(3), 1-15.

Outlined is an approach to teaching vocabulary in an advanced ESL class, Requiring Ss to transform new vocabulary words into their several content forms--Ns, Vs, adjs, advs--helps writers see that only specific types of words can be used in various sentence slots. Thus the writers learn not just the meanings of new words, but how to use their various forms in different sentence contexts.

(96)

Channell, Joanna. (1981). Applying semantic theory to vocabulary teaching. English Language Teaching Journal, 35, 115-122.

The article discusses the application of principles of theoretical semantics to the teaching of vocabulary in ESl courses. Learners' goals and problems are outlined. Semantic theories that can be applied to these problems are described, and sample teaching materials are discussed.

(97)

Cohen, Andrew, & Aphek, Edna. (1981). Easifying second language learning. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 3, 227-234.

This study investigates some basic things that language learners do, such as learning vocabulary and participating in class, with the intent of identifying and describing strategies which ease the learning process. Specifically, answers were sought for the following questions: 1. how do student learn a new second language vocabulary nad 2. what insights into good and bad communicative strategies can be gained from empirical observation.

The subjects were 19 native English speaking Ss taking an intensive Hebrew course. A longitudinal study of vocabulary learning in a second language was carried out; it was found that most Ss merely tried to memorize words they did not know. 13 Ss reported using associations. Students using associations retained the words successfully, even if the word was not used outside of class.

A second study concerned classroom observation of communicative strategies coupled with verification by the Ss themselves.

(98)

Cornu, Anne-Marie. (1979). The first step in vocabulary teaching. The Modern Language Journal, 63, 262-272.

A first step in vocabulary teaching involves conveying to the students as efficiently as possible the reality covered by a concept. Related words should be grouped into a fairly narrow semantic field. Words are organized hierarchically with a given hyponym and other terms directly related to it in terms of distinctive semantic features which contrast them from the hyponym. Where there is a less direct relationship it is necessary to contrast words in terms of intensity along a scale. Finally, stylistic features must be used in distinguishing when to use certain words. The teacher should present different concrete words to students according to imageable relation, then to functional relation and to identification of the concrete word with a field. Research from linguistics and psychology substantiates the claims made.

Crow, John, & Quigley, June. (1985). A semantic field approach to passive vocabulary acquisition for reading comprehension. TESOL Quarterly, 19, 497-513.

Traditionally, vocabulary study has been based on a word-by-word approach and, as such, has often been criticised as a component in ESL curricula. This study compares a traditional approach to vocabulary instruction with an approach based on the semantic fields of words that appeared in college-level reading texts. Half of the words presented to control groups (traditional approach), according to the format used in current vocabulary texts. The semantic field approach was based on the association between five related words and a keyword that could be mentally substituted in context. Testing revealed some short term advantage for the control groups, but no significant difference was revealed on long-term testing. Since experimental groups were exposed to twice as many words in the same amount of time, the findings lend support to the use of the semantic field approach. In addition, long-term testing revealed, for the words in this study, a highly significant difference favoring vocabulary taught experimentally over incidental learning that may occur during exposure to academic English.

(100)

Davoust, Andre. (1985). A la recherche de mots perdus:Pour une politique du reseau dans l'enseignement du lexique (Rememberance of words past: Toward a politics of the network in teaching the lexicon). Les Langues Modernes, 79(3-4), 47-52.

A method for teaching reusable vocabulary in language classes is described. The importance of teaching context is emphasized and the teaching of phrases rather than words recommended. Transcribed oral texts (eg. interviews) provide the source for vocabulary choice with the criterion that they be reusable in conversation. Exercises are outlined that employ plays on words, and lexical and syntactic reuse. Comprehension exercises are not eliminated, but are restricted to texts capable of reutilization.

(101)

Erdmenger, Manfred. (1985). Word acquisition and vocabulary structure in third-year EFL learners. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 23, 159-164.

Data from multiword association tests show that words are linked in the human mind in semantically coherent clusters, or sometimes in the shape of a string. In the early stages of second language acquisition, word associations in the foreign language follow the tracks of native language associations, particularly in slow learners. From this fact, it is concluded that vocabulary acquisition can be facilitated by using the native language association patterns. Some data from aphasic patients that support this approach are discussed.

(102)

Esser, Ulrich. (1980). Wortschatzerwerb--aus fremdsprachenpsychologischer Sicht betrachtet (The acquisition of vocabulary and the psychology of foreign language learning). Fremdsphrachenunterricht, 24, 598-601.

How can the greatest number of words be retained with the minimum of effort? A questionnaire showed that most students favored the traditional method of learning vocabulary. Experiments showed that retention of vocabulary increases in direct proportion to the extent to which the lists are structured. If the semantic connection between the words is obvious, then recall improves. Lists of phonetically similar items (coal/foal/goal) lead to confusion and do not aid the memory. Items at the beginning and end of lists are remembered better than items in the middle. Performance in vocabulary tests improves as the Ss grasp of the language improves. Obscure and complex lexical items are remembered less well than more common and "simpler" vocabulary. Ability to retain vocabulary decreases with age. A foreign language course ought to take account of these various psychological factors influencing S's performance.

(103)

Fox, Jeremy. (1984). Computer-assisted vocabulary learning. English Language Teaching Journal, 38, 27-33.

Two approaches to computer-assisted learning (CAL) for the learning of vocabulary are discussed: 1. uncontextualized CAL, requiring one-word answere, and 2. contextualized or global forms of practice (eg. unscrambling or reconstructing a text). Uncontextualized exercises include opposites, collocations and analogies. Contextualized exercises include various types of text manipulation such as rebuilding a text or story, filling gaps,etc. Such exercises give Ss considerable control over their learning. The computer is not so much a drillmaster, more an information source.

Fox, Len. (1979). On acquiring an adequate second language vocabulary. Journal of Basic Writing, 2(3), 68-75.

The author proposes that increased amounts of reading should be assigned at all levels of ESL programs, and he suggests ways to reconstruct programs and to teach reading and vocabulary effectively.

(105)

Gidmark, Jill. (1982). Tailoring reading and vocabulary courses to the needs of non-native speakers of English. Alternative Higher Education, 6, 172-183.

The integration of instruction in reading and vocabulary can aid language learning for non-native speakers of English. Theories behind some of the difficulties in learning English are discussed and some practical methods for lessening those difficulties are suggested. The differences in focus and emphasis between teaching reading and vocabulary skills to native students and teaching the same skills to non-native students are delineated.

(106)

Hall, James el.al. (1981). Mnemotechnics: Some limitations of the mnemonic keyword method for the study of foreign language vocabulary. Journal of Educational Psychology, 73, 345-357.

The effectiveness of the mnemonic keyword method was examined in four experiments with college students learning lists of 24-32 pairs of Spanish nouns and their English equivalents. The first three experiments in which the lists were presented for periods of free study, yielding the following results: 1. the keyword condition, with keywords supplied by the experimenter, was similar or somewhat inferior to the control conditions both in the Spanish-English (forward) and in the English-Spanish (backward) direction; 2. the keyword condition was clearly inferior to controls when Ss were required to generate keywords; 3. keyword and control conditions were similar in retention over one week. In the fourth experiment the keyword method was superior to the control condition with successive, experimenter-paced presentation but inferior with free-study presentation; free study was maredly superior to paced presentation for both keyword and control conditions. Implications for the further study and application of the keyword method, and mnemotechnics more generally, are discussed.

(107)

Hill, L.A. (1978). Practice in intelligent guessing of meaning from context. Zielsprache Englisch, 3, 1-2.

Discusses exercises in foreign language teaching in which the learner can, from experience in his own language, conjecture the meaning of foreign words from the context.

(108)

Hill, L.A. (1980). Extending students' vocabulary: Prefixes and suffixes. Zielsprache Englisch, 10(3), 8-10.

Describes a teaching method for vocabulary development based on word formation by means of affixes.

(109)

Judd, Elliott. (1978). Vocabulary teaching and TESOL: A need for reevaluation of existing assumptions. TESOL Quarterly, 12, 71-76.

Vocabulary instruction in TESOL has been traditionally relegated to secondary status in favor of an emphasis on the teaching of syntactic structures. According to the traditional theories, vocabulary acquisition has also been seem as a means to improve reading and listening comprehension and not as a skill vital in its own right.

These traditional views are challenged in this paper as being inappropriate for ESL programs on the university level. Massive vocabulary instruction should begin as soon as possible and the status of lexical knowledge should be given greater emphasis in TESOL programs. Relevant lexical items that are within the S's syntactic knowledge should be selected and immediately integrated into the classroom setting. Repetition of vocabulary items in a natural linguistic context will aid the students in dealing with multiple meanings and sociolinguistic contexts of words and phrases. In short, the author argues for a new emphasis on vocabulary instruction in TESOL programs.

(110)

Kirschbaum, E. (1980). Exakte arbeit an der lexik--eine unabdingbare voraussetzung fur die verwiklichung der kommunikativen ziele (Exact work on vocabulary--a necessary prerequisite to the realization of communicative aims). Fremdsprachenunterricht, 24, 162-164.

The communicative goal of L2 instruction can be realized only when learners are motivated to retain a considerably large lexicon for a long period of time. Vocabulary teaching must be intensive, target-oriented, rational, and effective. Meanings of the new lexical items, their acoustic and written forms, derivative peculiarities and usage must be taught. Special attention should be devoted to polysemy, inter- and intra- linguistic inferences and the connection with other words in the word groups and sentences. Methodological suggestions are offered.

(111)

Kruse, Anna. (1979). Vocabulary in context. English Language Teaching Journal, 33, 207-213.

There is a lack of effective methods for teaching vocabulary in EFL reading programs. Emphasis has often been on rote memorization, rather than on vocabulary development skills. Contextual aids, illustrations, for example, use of prefixes, suffixes and roots, definition clues and inference clues from discourse can be employed to teach students ways of guessing meaning from context and structure. A specific program for teaching vocabulary development skills is presented.

(112)

McKay, Sandra. (1980). Teaching the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic dimensions of verbs. TESOL Quarterly, 14, 17-26.

The audiolingual emphasis on teaching structure with a minimum of vocabulary has contributed little to the development of vocabulary materials. Lexical usage, however, is an area in which ESL students demonstrate a considerable number of errors. In an effort to help develop lexical competence, this paper illustrates one strategy for teaching vocabulary with the use of a computer corpus. Because of their inherent difficulty, verbs are the main focus of the materials, although the technique could be used with other parts of speech. It is assumed here that knowing a word involves knowing how to use the word syntactically, semantically, and pragmatically.

(113)

Martin, Anne. (1976). Teaching academic vocabulary to foreign graduate students. TESOL Quarterly, 10, 91-99.

The foreign graduate student in an American university needs to exhibit a wide range of academic skills. To participate effectively in the research-oriented environment, he needs an excellant command of vocabulary; both technical and academic. A method of teaching acadeemic vocabulary to the intermediate/advanced EFL graduate S is discussed. The term academic vocabulary is defined and compared to the terms scientific, technical and subtechnical vocabulary. Criteria used for selecting academic vocabulary items are discussed. The vocabulary is divided into three ares appropriate for teaching: the research process, analysis, and evaluation. Selected items and sample exercises for each area are given and broader applications in each of the four areas of language use are described.

(114)

Nation, I.S.P. (1982). Beginning to learn foreign vocabulary: A review of the research. RELC Journal, 13, 14-36.

An attempt is made to provide a comprehensive review of the experimental findings on foreign language vocabulary learning. Almost all research involves learning word pairs made up of a foreign word paired with its native language translation. Direct and indirect vocabulary learning are compared; and evidence on how much vocabulary can be learned in a given time, how many repetitions are required for learning to occur, and why some words are more difficult to learn than others is reviewed. Differnet techniques for receptive and productive vocabulary learning are presented.

(115)

Nattinger, James. (1980). A lexical phrase grammar for ESL. TESOL Quarterly, 14, 337-344.

Current work in lexical grammars suggests that we need to think of lexicon for ESL classes in much broader terms and must pay more attention to the importance of prefabricated speech routines in language behavior. The article discusses the kind and extent of lexical phrases, using categories from recent work in artificial intelligence, and outlines further research that is necessary to make these speech routines an integral part of the syllabus.

(116)

Paivio, Allan, & Desrochers, Alain. (1981). Mnemonic techniques in second language learning. Journal of Educational Psychology, 73, 780-795.

A review of research on mnemonic techniques as used in L2 learning, emphasizing imagery-based techniques. The keyword technique involves using a specific word in the familiar language to establish an acoustic and imaginal link between the unfamiliar word and its translation equivalent in the native language. Laboratory experiments show that the technique clearly facilitates the learning of L2 vocabulary when learning is measured by a comprehension test that requires subjects to translate the new words into their native-language equivalents. Adolescents and adults benefit most from generating their own interactive images, but younger children require the support of interactive pictures or sentences. The method does not have an immediate facilitating effect on productive recall unless the new response items are already available in memory.

(117)

Ramsey, Robert. (1981). A technique for interlingual lexico-semantic comparison: The lexigram. TESOL Quarterly, 15, 15-24.

The is a need for vocabulary research into vocabulary structure in the field of L2 learning. The issue of vocabulary in EFL/ESL curriculum is addressed, and a technique is introduced for interlingual lexico-semantic comparison; the lexigram. The technique is based on a study of restricted word association data obtained from NSs of English (n=100), Castilian Spanish and Catalan. English data from NN English speakers in Barcelona are compared with data from native speakers.

(118)

Richards, Jack. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 10, 77-90.

A consideration of the knowledge that is assumed by lexical competence is offered as a frame of reference for assessing vocabulary teaching. Linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic aspects of word knowledge are examined. These include word frequency, vocabulary growth in native speakers, collocation, register, case relations, underlying forms, word association and semantic structure. Vocabulary techniques are discussed according to the way that they attempt to build up these aspects of vocabulary knowledge.

(119)

Rivers. Wilga. (1981). Apples of gold in pictures of silver: Where have all the words gone? Studia Linguistica,35, 114-129.

A plea is made for more emphasis on the importance of vocabulary in foreign language classes. It is suggested that the relevance of a rich vocabulary to communication has been lost in recent years. It should be remembered that a foreign language not only provides opportunities for the acquisition of forms, but encourages communication of ideas and expression of individuality through these forms. Ss should be helped to choose words that express subtleties and to understand others in an intercultural context.

(120)

Rohrer, Josef. (1980). Learning styles and teaching vocabulary. Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics, 280-288.

The role of vocabulary learning is reconsidered and reasons for giving it priority over the learning of other foreign language elements are proposed. In view of certain aspects of memory, a conceptological approach is given preference to a lexical approach. Five cognitive learning styles are addressed. It is suggested that they increase the effectiveness of vocabulary learning because they use universal thinking behaviors. These thinking behaviors exemplified by appropriate vocabulary learning exercises are: 1. conceptualization 2.taxonomic thinking 3.anological reasoning 4. association 5. closure. Although the discussion is restricted to mainly cognitive learning styles, the importance of the affective dimensions inherent in any learning experience is stressed.

(121)

Scanlan, T. (1979). Teaching British and American language and culture with the aid of mail-order catalogues. English Language Teaching Journal, 34(1), 68-71.

The article discusses practical ways in which mail-order catalogues may be used in teaching ESL in order to promote vocabulary acquisition, induce cultural awareness, and encourage conversation in English.

(122)

Searfoss, L.W., Smith, C.C.,& Bean, T.W. (1981). An integrated language strategy for second language learners. TESOL Quarterly, 15, 383-389.

L2 learners face two simultaneous problems in content area classes: acquiring specialized concepts and vocabulary, and acquiring general communicative facility. The adapted guided writing procedure (GWP) provides instruction and practice in basic communication skills by using oral language as a bridge to reading and writing. It activates S's prior knowledge to furnish a framework for the acquisition of new concepts. The GWP offer L2 learners an opportunity for meaningful practice of the TL in a step-by-step sequence.

(123)

Tritch, M. (1981). Improving vocabulary problems in co-occurance and vocabulary marking. English Teaching Forum, 19(2), 22-27.

The author suggests a way of looking at difficulties students have in using words appropriately, and an approach for presenting this information to students.

(124)

Wagner, M.J. & Tilney, G. (1983). The effect of "superlearning techniques" on the vocabulary acquisition and alpha brainwave production of language learners. TESOL Quarterly, 17, 5-17.

This study investigated the applicability of techniques adapted from Lazanov's "Suggestopedia" described in Ostrander and Schroeder Superlearning. Lack of scientific validity in experiments substantiating claims about Suggestopedia prompted this study. 21 adult ESL students, language teachers, and graduate music education majors were taught a discrete 300 word german vocabulary list over a 5-week period using relaxation tapes manufactured by Superlearning, Inc., using Suggestopedia methodology and measuring brainwaves using electroencephalography. Baroque music (n=7), no-Baroque music (n=7) and a no-contact control group (n=7) learned the same vocabulary. Analysis of language acquisition showed no significant improvement across the 5-weeks. No significant drop in scores across the experimental period suggests vocabulary was retained in all groups. When modes of presentation were compared, those taught by traditional methods showed significantly more vocabulary learning than those taught by the Superlearning techniques. No change in brainwave activity could be detected in any group. Although scrupulous care to preserve Superlearning techniques was taken, accelerated learning could not be sustantiated.

(125)

Walter, H. (1984). Einfuhrung in die texterschliessung durch kombinieren und intelligentes raten (Introduction to the comprehension of a text through combining and intelligent guessing). Neusprachliche Mitteilungen, 37(1) 27-34.

Ss should be encouraged to read texts in a foreign language and not be put off by long prepatory lists of new vocabulary. An experiment is reported in which 90% of the new vocabulary in the text was arrived at without any kind of explanation. The second part of the article discusses Carton's notion of "inferencing" and demonstrates useful techniques which the teacher can use to contextualize new vocabulary. The rest of the article is devoted to detailed descriptions of how "guessing" and the comprehension of unknown vocabulary can be enhanced.